

Nonlinear propagation of planet-generated tidal waves.

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ABSTRACT

The propagation and evolution of planet-generated density waves in protoplanetary disks is considered. The evolution of waves, leading to the shock formation and wake dissipation, is followed in the weakly nonlinear regime. The local approach of Goodman & Rafikov (2001) is extended to include the effects of surface density and temperature variations in the disk as well as the disk cylindrical geometry and nonuniform shear. Wave damping due to shocks is demonstrated to be a nonlocal process spanning a significant fraction of the disk. Torques induced by the planet could be significant drivers of disk evolution on timescales $\sim 10^6 - 10^7$ yr even in the absence of strong background viscosity. A global prescription for angular momentum deposition is developed which could be incorporated into the study of gap formation in a gaseous disk around the planet.

Subject headings: planets and satellites: general — solar system: formation — (stars:) planetary systems

1. Introduction.

Tidal disk-companion interactions are important in a variety of astrophysical contexts ranging from the formation and evolution of protoplanetary systems to the origin of galactic spiral structure. Gravitational interaction between the disk and companion generates density waves in the disk (gaseous, stellar or particulate) which carry angular momentum. This angular momentum is eventually deposited elsewhere in the disk, leading to the evolution of the disk as a whole.

In the case of protoplanetary systems disk-planet interactions not only cause the migration of the planet (Goldreich & Tremaine 1980, hereafter GT80; Ward 1997) but can also drive noticeable evolution of the disk itself (Larson 1989; Goodman & Rafikov 2001, hereafter GR01). However, to change the state of the disk and orbit of the planet in these systems it is necessary to somehow transfer angular momentum from the density waves launched by the perturber to the disk material and this can only be accomplished by virtue of some damping process (Goldreich & Nicholson 1989).

Various mechanisms have been envisaged as possible sources for such damping. The most popular linear ones are viscosity in the disk (Takeuchi et al. 1996) and radiative damping of the tidal perturbations (Cassen & Woolum 1996). Viscosity can dissipate tidal perturbations on scales smaller than the typical disk sizes only if it is large enough, $\alpha \gtrsim 10^{-4}$ (Takeuchi et al. 1996; GR01), but it is hard to identify a strong source of viscosity in protoplanetary disks. The most probable viscous mechanism in hot accretion disks – magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) turbulence driven by the magnetorotational instability (Velikhov 1959; Balbus & Hawley 1998) – probably does not operate in protoplanetary disk environments: the gas is too cold and weakly ionized throughout most of the disk (Jin 1996; Hawley & Stone 1998). Convection was put forward as another possible source of viscosity (Lin & Papaloizou 1980) but analytical arguments and numerical simulations cast serious doubt on the ability of this mechanism to produce outward angular momentum transport (Ryu & Goodman 1992; Balbus et al. 1996). The efficiency of radiative damping in protoplanetary disks is strongly reduced by dust opacity (Henning & Stognienko 1996), which leads to very high optical depths ($\tau \gtrsim 10^3$) and implies very small radiative losses from the disk surface. Waves could also be damped by radiative transfer in the plane of the disk but this turns out not to be very important either (GR01).

Nonlinear dissipation, namely shock formation and its consequent damping, seems to represent a more efficient and almost inevitable process for transferring the angular momentum of the wave to the disk fluid. There are two reasons for this. First, the differential rotation of the background fluid causes the wavelength of the tidal perturbation to decrease as it travels away from the planet (Goldreich & Tremaine 1979). Second, the amplitude of the planet-induced wake is growing, at least in the planetary vicinity, as a consequence of the conservation of the angular momentum flux. These processes working together can make the wave shock very rapidly if the initial wave amplitude is significant (i.e. if the perturber is massive enough).

Goodman & Rafikov (GR01) have performed a detailed study of nonlinear evolution of planet-induced density waves in two-dimensional disks. Using the shearing sheet approximation they have demonstrated that for small enough planetary mass it is possible to separate the wake evolution into two distinct stages: linear generation, which takes about $(1 - 2) \times h$ from the planet to complete (here $h = c/\Omega$ is a typical scale length, which equals disk thickness in three dimensions, c is a sound speed and Ω is a disk angular frequency), and then nonlinear evolution of the wake causing it to shock after travelling several h from the perturber (of course, depending on the mass of the planet). After the shock is formed, it damps transferring its angular momentum to the mean flow and leading to disk evolution. In favorable conditions the damping of the density waves can make the disk evolve on timescales comparable with those derived from observations [$10^5 - 10^7$ yr, see Hartmann et al. (1998)].

The considerations of GR01 were in a certain sense local because of the shearing sheet approximation. It was shown that this approach is good for the description of the shock *formation* but probably not so accurate for studying the shock *dissipation*: in the shearing sheet geometry shock damping proceeds slowly and at some point the background fluid velocity can no longer be

represented by just a uniform shear. The analysis of GR01 also assumed a disk with constant background surface density and sound speed and did not take into account the effects of the disk’s polar geometry on the evolution of the density wave amplitude. These approximations naturally lead to a picture in which the wake itself and its damping pattern are symmetric on both sides of the planet.

The main purpose of this paper is to extend the analysis of GR01 by including the effects of radial surface density and sound speed variations in the disk on the behavior of the weak tidal disturbances generated by a low-mass planet incapable of opening a gap in the disk. We consider a Keplerian rotation law (not a linearly sheared background flow) and a polar geometry to include self-consistently important ingredients needed to provide a global picture of the nonlinear evolution of the density waves in non self-gravitating disks. We restrict our attention to purely two-dimensional disks, thus completely disregarding vertical motions and related phenomena, such as wave-action channeling in the vertical direction (Lin et al. 1990; Lubow & Ogilvie 1998). We believe that this is a good approximation in passive, externally irradiated protoplanetary disks with high optical depths which should have almost isothermal vertical structure (Chiang & Goldreich 1997).

The paper is structured as follows. In §2 we study the full system of fluid equations in cylindrical geometry. We provide in §2.1 simple scaling laws for the behavior of the wake amplitude and shock formation distance in the quazilinear approximation from rather general qualitative considerations. We then confirm these estimates by an accurate quantitative analysis in §2.2. Wake properties are studied in §3, in particular for the case of disks with power-law surface density and sound speed radial dependencies (§3.2). Applications of our results are discussed in §4.

2. Density wave structure.

We consider a system consisting of a gaseous non self-gravitating disk rotating in the unperturbed potential $U_\star(r)$ (r is the distance from the central object) and a planet of mass M_p located at a distance r_p from the center. The disk is assumed to be geometrically thin and its unperturbed surface density Σ_0 and sound speed c_0 are both taken to be functions of r . Disk scale height in three dimensions is $h = c_0/\Omega$. We will always denote by the subscript “p” various quantities evaluated at the position of the planet.

The equations of motion and continuity for the two-dimensional disk read as always

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v} = -\frac{1}{\Sigma} \nabla P - \nabla U, \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial \Sigma}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{v} \Sigma) = 0. \quad (2)$$

Here \mathbf{v} and Σ are the fluid velocity and surface density, P is the pressure, and the potential

$$U = U_\star - G \frac{M_p}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_p|} + U_i, \quad (3)$$

consists of three contributions: the potentials of the central star and perturbing planet (we assume a Keplerian potential $U_\star = -GM_c/r$, where M_c is a mass of the central star), and the indirect potential U_i , which can always be neglected here (because disk mass is much smaller than M_c).

We assume that the pressure P is related to the instantaneous value of the surface density Σ by the *locally* polytropic law with a specific index γ :

$$P = P_0(r) \left[\frac{\Sigma}{\Sigma_0(r)} \right]^\gamma. \quad (4)$$

Then the perturbed sound velocity is given by the usual expression

$$c^2 = \frac{\partial P}{\partial \Sigma} = c_0^2(r) \left[\frac{\Sigma}{\Sigma_0(r)} \right]^{\gamma-1}, \quad (5)$$

meaning that $P_0(r) = \Sigma_0(r)c_0^2(r)/\gamma$. Clearly, $P_0(r)$ and $c_0(r)$ are unperturbed values of pressure and sound speed. The equation of state given by (4) does not force $c_0(r)$ to be related to $\Sigma_0(r)$ and this gives us additional flexibility in applications. The entropy of the disk fluid now varies with r , contrary to the equation of state with a radially-independent polytropic constant.

2.1. General considerations.

Using basic physical principles such as conservation of angular momentum flux it is possible to analyze the behavior of the wake in the quazilinear regime and determine when the wave shocks on a qualitative level. The simple scaling laws obtained in this way will later be confirmed by more rigorous analysis of the complete system of the fluid equations.

Let us first concentrate on linear wake propagation. One can easily show that the solution of equations (1)-(2) in the linearized form with the equation of state (4) yields, using the WKB approximation,

$$m^2 (\Omega - \Omega_p)^2 = \kappa^2 + k^2 c^2, \quad (6)$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dr} \left[\frac{rc_0^3}{(\Omega - \Omega_p)\Sigma_0} (\Sigma - \Sigma_0)_m^2 \right] = 0, \quad (7)$$

for non self-gravitating disks. Here m is the azimuthal wavenumber, k is the radial wavenumber of the perturbation, Ω_p is the perturbation pattern angular frequency, $(\Sigma - \Sigma_0)_m$ is the m -th harmonic of the surface density perturbation, and

$$\Omega^2 = \frac{1}{r} \frac{dU_\star}{dr} + \frac{1}{\Sigma_0} \frac{dP_0}{dr}, \quad \kappa^2(r) = 4B(r)\Omega(r), \quad (8)$$

where

$$B(r) = \Omega(r) + \frac{r}{2} \frac{d\Omega}{dr}. \quad (9)$$

Equation (6) is the usual dispersion relation for small perturbations in the thin differentially-rotating disk and it shows that density waves behave basically like sound waves after propagating several scale lengths h from the perturber. Both equations (6) and (7) coincide with their analogs for the disks with constant entropy (Goldreich & Tremaine 1979). One can also demonstrate that the total angular momentum flux across a cylinder of radius r carried by the m -th harmonic of surface density perturbation is given by

$$f_{Jm} = \pi \frac{rc_0^3}{(\Omega - \Omega_p)\Sigma_0} (\Sigma - \Sigma_0)_m^2, \quad (10)$$

[which is the same as the analogous expression of Goldreich & Tremaine (1979)], which, combined with equation(7), implies that f_J is conserved.

If the nonlinear effects are fully neglected and f_J is strictly conserved as demonstrated above, then it follows from (10) that the magnitude of the surface density perturbations scales with other flow variables as

$$(\Sigma - \Sigma_0)^2 \propto \frac{\Sigma_0(\Omega - \Omega_p)}{rc_0^3} f_J. \quad (11)$$

This equation demonstrates how the amplitude of the wave varies in the linear regime and we will return to it in §2.2.

In reality, even if the perturbation is small, different points of the wake profile have different propagation velocities so that the waveform constantly distorts. This nonlinear evolution leads to shock formation. In a shock the angular momentum of the density wave gets transferred to the mean flow so that scaling provided by (11) breaks down after the shock is formed. We can estimate when this happens.

Let us consider a part of the profile which initially has a phase $\varphi = \varphi_0$. It evolves according to

$$\left. \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial r} \right|_{\varphi_0} = 2\pi \frac{\delta c(r)}{\lambda(r)c(r)}, \quad (12)$$

where $\delta c(r)$ is the perturbation of the propagation velocity c , which is the sound velocity in our case (it is different for different φ_0 and this is responsible for the profile distortion), and $\lambda(r)$ is the current wavelength.

Integrating (12) with respect to r one gets that

$$\varphi = \varphi_0 + 2\pi \int_{r_0}^r \frac{\delta c(r)}{\lambda(r)c(r)} dr \quad (13)$$

(r_0 corresponds to the point where the wave is launched).

The wave shocks when its profile acquires an infinite slope after travelling some distance r_{sh} : $d\varphi/d\varphi_0 = 0$ at $r = r_{sh}$ for some specific φ_0 . This gives us [using (13)] the condition for r_{sh} in the

following form:

$$\int_{r_0}^{r_{sh}} \frac{k(r)\delta c(r)}{c(r)} dr = const. \quad (14)$$

From the dispersion relation (6) we get that $k \propto (\Omega - \Omega_p)/c$; since $\delta c/c \propto \delta \Sigma/\Sigma$, we can use the scaling provided by equation (11) to obtain finally the shocking condition in the form

$$\int_{r_0}^{r_{sh}} \left[\frac{(\Omega - \Omega_p)^3}{rc_0^5 \Sigma_0} \right]^{1/2} dr = C f_J^{-1/2} \propto M_p^{-1}, \quad (15)$$

where C is some constant.

Scaling laws (11) and (15) immediately provide important information about the wake propagation in the linear regime and conditions needed for the shock formation.

2.2. Basic equations.

In this section we study the behavior of the wake by solving the fluid equations for small perturbations in a weakly nonlinear regime. We work in the polar coordinate system rotating with the angular velocity of the perturber $\Omega_p = \sqrt{(1/r_p)(\partial U_*/\partial r)|_{r_p}}$. In this coordinate frame the flow is stationary (time-independent). As always, we take the r -axis to be directed out from the central body and the ϕ -axis to be directed in a prograde sense.

In this coordinate system the equations of motion in the r and ϕ directions are (Landau & Lifshitz 1959)

$$v_r \partial_r v_r + \frac{v_\phi}{r} \partial_\phi v_r - \frac{v_\phi^2}{r} = -\frac{1}{\Sigma} \partial_r P + 2\Omega_p v_\phi + \Omega_p^2 r - \partial_r U, \quad (16)$$

$$v_r \partial_r v_\phi + \frac{v_\phi}{r} \partial_\phi v_\phi + \frac{v_\phi v_r}{r} = -\frac{1}{\Sigma r} \partial_\phi P - 2\Omega_p v_r - \frac{1}{r} \partial_\phi U, \quad (17)$$

and the continuity equation is

$$\frac{1}{r} \partial_r (\Sigma r v_r) + \frac{1}{r} \partial_\phi (\Sigma v_\phi) = 0. \quad (18)$$

Here v_r and v_ϕ are the fluid velocities in the r and ϕ directions respectively. Equations (16) and (17) include Coriolis and centrifugal forces.

GR01 have demonstrated that the system (16)-(18) simplifies significantly if the mass of the perturber M_p is smaller than a characteristic mass M_1 given by

$$M_1 \equiv \frac{c_0^3}{|2A|G}, \quad (19)$$

where $A(r) = (r/2)d\Omega/dr$ is the Oort's A constant which is related to $B(r)$ by $B \equiv \Omega + A$ [equation(9)]. Then the disk could be split into two distinct regions: an excitation region, within several scale lengths $h_p = h(r_p) = c_0(r_p)/\Omega(r_p)$ from the planet, where one can neglect nonlinear effects, and a propagation region beyond several h_p from the planet, where the planetary potential is negligible and one can study wake evolution caused by nonlinear effects.

In the first region numerous Lindblad resonances tidally excite density waves corresponding to different azimuthal harmonics and provide individual Fourier contributions to the angular momentum flux (GT80). Most of the angular momentum comes from the resonances with azimuthal wavenumbers $m \sim r_p/h_p \gg 1$ which lie close to the planet — at distances $\sim h_p$ from it. Harmonics with smaller m are weaker because the tidal excitation they experience is reduced by their larger distance from the planet. Fourier components with m higher than r_p/h_p are strongly damped because of the so-called “torque cutoff” (GT80). Its nature can be qualitatively understood as follows: near the planet, less than $(2/3)h_p$ from it (in a Keplerian disk), the background fluid flow is subsonic which does not allow a stationary perturber to excite sound waves (Landau & Lifshitz 1959). This cutoff strongly reduces the amount of the angular momentum flux carried by the corresponding harmonics.

GR01 studied the linear wake formation process in the shearing sheet approximation taking into account not only the contributions of individual resonances to the torque, but also the phases of the Fourier harmonics of the surface density perturbation which allowed them to obtain the *shape* of the wake in the linear theory. Here we will simply use their results in our more general case because wake generation is essentially a local process, spanning only a few h_p from the planet, where the shearing sheet approximation gives a good representation of the disk velocity profile and Σ_0 and c_0 may be assumed constant. The solution of this problem in our more global setting with varying Σ_0 and c_0 will only be different from the previously obtained local solution by factors of the order of $h_p/r_p \ll 1$ which is of no interest for us here.

Thus, we can proceed immediately to study the wake propagation region. To do this we use a simple extension of conventional perturbation theory capable of including a weak nonlinearity of the wave. We assume that v_r and v_ϕ are given by

$$v_r = u, \quad v_\phi = v_0(r) + v \quad \text{with} \quad v_0(r) = r [\Omega(r) - \Omega_p], \quad (20)$$

where u and v are the velocity perturbations and we take $u, v \ll v_0$ since the shock is assumed to be weak and we are always several scale lengths away from the planet. We will often write for brevity $\Delta\Omega = \Omega(r) - \Omega_p$.

Substituting (20) into (16)-(18) one obtains the following perturbation equations:

$$\Delta\Omega\partial_\phi u + u\partial_r u - 2\Omega v = - \left(\frac{1}{\Sigma}\partial_r P - \frac{1}{\Sigma}\partial_r P_0 \right) + \frac{v^2}{r}, \quad (21)$$

$$\Delta\Omega\partial_\phi v + u\partial_r v + 2Bu = - \frac{1}{r\Sigma}\partial_\phi P - \frac{vu}{r}, \quad (22)$$

$$\Delta\Omega\partial_\phi\Sigma + u\partial_r\Sigma + \Sigma\partial_ru = -\frac{\Sigma u}{r} - \frac{v}{r}\partial_\phi\Sigma - \frac{\Sigma}{r}\partial_\phi v. \quad (23)$$

We have everywhere neglected v in comparison with $\Delta\Omega r$ and made use of the fact that $\partial_\phi P_0 = 0$. In equations (21)-(23) terms quadratic in u and v are subdominant; however we will keep $u\partial_ru$ terms because they are the strongest drivers of nonlinear evolution. Also, we assume that $v \ll u$ and $\partial_\phi \ll r\partial_r$ as a consequence of tight-winding approximation. These assumptions are checked in Appendix.

By introducing a new radial coordinate given by

$$\xi = \int_{r_p}^r [\Omega(r) - \Omega_p] dr \quad (24)$$

this system is transformed into

$$\partial_\phi u + u\partial_\xi u + \frac{1}{\Sigma}\partial_\xi P - \frac{1}{\Sigma_0}\partial_\xi P_0 = \frac{2\Omega}{\Delta\Omega}v + \frac{v^2}{\Delta\Omega r}, \quad (25)$$

$$\partial_\phi v + u\partial_\xi v + \frac{c^2}{\Delta\Omega r \Sigma}\partial_\phi \Sigma = -\frac{2B}{\Delta\Omega}u - \frac{uv}{\Delta\Omega r}, \quad (26)$$

$$\partial_\phi \Sigma + u\partial_\xi \Sigma + \Sigma\partial_\xi u = -\frac{\Sigma u}{\Delta\Omega r} - \frac{v}{\Delta\Omega r}\partial_\phi \Sigma - \frac{\Sigma}{\Delta\Omega r}\partial_\phi v. \quad (27)$$

The l.h.s. of (25) and (27) are similar to the usual system of equations describing isentropic one-dimensional gas motion (Landau & Lifshitz 1959), which possesses two invariants conserved on characteristics — Riemann invariants R_\pm . In our case the nonzero r.h.s. of (25) and (27) cause these invariants not to be conserved exactly, but one can still use them in a slightly modified way. We extract from (25) and (27) two equations of evolution of the Riemann invariants:

$$\begin{aligned} [\partial_\phi + (u \pm c)\partial_\xi] R_\pm = & - \left[\frac{1}{\Sigma}\partial_\xi P - \frac{1}{\Sigma_0}\partial_\xi P_0 - c\partial_\xi \frac{2c}{\gamma-1} \pm cu \frac{\partial_\xi \Sigma}{\Sigma} \mp u\partial_\xi \frac{2c}{\gamma-1} \right] \\ & + \frac{2\Omega}{\Delta\Omega}v + \frac{v^2}{\Delta\Omega r} \mp \frac{cu}{\Delta\Omega r} \mp \frac{cv}{\Delta\Omega r}\partial_\phi \ln \Sigma \mp \frac{c}{\Delta\Omega r}\partial_\phi v, \end{aligned} \quad (28)$$

where

$$R_\pm = u \pm \frac{2c}{\gamma-1}, \quad (29)$$

and it is always assumed that $c = c(r) = c(\xi)$.

As noted in GR01, the characteristic C_+ crosses the wake profile while the characteristic C_- follows it, that is C_- is always in the perturbed region while C_+ mostly passes through the unperturbed fluid and only for short periods of time enters the perturbed region. One can assume the changes in R_+ due to these crossings to be small and take R_+ to be constant (we will later comment on the effect of the multiple crossings) and equal to its value in the unperturbed region.

There, $R_+ = 2c_0/(\gamma - 1)$ everywhere. Then, from the conservation of R_+ one obtains that $u = 2(c_0 - c)/(\gamma - 1)$ and $R_- = 2(c_0 - 2c)/(\gamma - 1)$.

Using these results it is demonstrated in Appendix that the equation of evolution of R_- can be reduced to an inviscid Burger's equation

$$\partial_t \chi - \chi \partial_\eta \chi = 0, \quad (30)$$

where

$$\chi \equiv \frac{\gamma + 1}{2} \frac{\Sigma - \Sigma_0}{\Sigma_0} g(r), \quad (31)$$

$$t \equiv -\frac{r_p}{l_p} \int_{r_p}^r \frac{\Omega(r') - \Omega_p}{c_0(r') g(r')} dr', \quad (32)$$

$$\eta \equiv \frac{r_p}{l_p} \left[\phi + \text{sign}(r - r_p) \int_{r_p}^r \frac{\Omega(r') - \Omega_p}{c_0(r')} dr' \right], \quad (33)$$

$$\text{and } g(r) \equiv \frac{2^{1/4}}{r_p c_p \Sigma_p^{1/2}} \left(\frac{r \Sigma_0 c_0^3}{|\Omega - \Omega_p|} \right)^{1/2}. \quad (34)$$

Here $l_p = c_p/|2A(r_p)| = (2/3)h_p$ is a Mach-1 length (distance from the planet where the Keplerian shear makes fluid velocity equal to c_p).

In the immediate vicinity of the planet (but still several h_p from it) definitions (31)-(34) reduce to

$$\chi \rightarrow \frac{\gamma + 1}{2^{3/4}} \left| \frac{x}{l_p} \right|^{-1/2} \frac{\Sigma - \Sigma_0}{\Sigma_0}, \quad t \rightarrow \frac{2^{3/4}}{5} \left| \frac{x}{l_p} \right|^{5/2}, \quad \eta \rightarrow \frac{y}{l_p} + \frac{x^2}{2l_p^2} \text{sign}(x), \quad (35)$$

where $x = r - r_p$ and $y = r_p \phi$. These equations coincide with analogous expressions in GR01.

The tidal perturbation launched by the planet follows a nearly parabolic path in the immediate vicinity of the planet where the shear can be assumed constant. Further from the perturber where the shear is no longer uniform, the density wave has a spiral shape. Its pattern is described by the equation

$$\phi = \phi_0 - \text{sign}(r - r_p) \int_{r_p}^r \frac{\Omega(r') - \Omega_p}{c_0(r')} dr' \quad (36)$$

Depending on the conditions in the disk this spiral can wind up several times around the center before the wave damps. One can see from (36) that the perturbation is indeed tightly wound if $|r - r_p| \gg h_p$ (this could, however, be violated further away from the planet for some profiles of Σ_0 and c_0 , see §3.2).

Now, if we disregard the nonlinear evolution entirely, it follows from equation (30) that $\chi = f(\eta)$ [$f(x)$ is an arbitrary function of the argument x], or

$$(\Sigma - \Sigma_0)_{lin} = \frac{\Sigma_0}{c_0 g(r)} f(\eta) = \left[\frac{\Sigma_0(\Omega - \Omega_p)}{r c_0^3} \right]^{1/2} f \left(\phi + \text{sign}(r - r_p) \int_{r_p}^r \frac{\Omega(r') - \Omega_p}{c_0(r')} dr' \right). \quad (37)$$

This means that in the linear regime, the waveform propagates along the wake (whose location is given by the condition $\eta = \text{const}$) and its amplitude scales with the distance from the planet in complete agreement with equation (11).

3. Nonlinear evolution of the wake.

Burger’s equation (30) is probably the simplest partial differential equation able to exhibit a shock formation phenomenon. For the reasons outlined in §2.1 the profile of the density wave produced by the linear generation mechanism is constantly distorted in the course of its propagation away from the planet, so that finally the waveform breaks to become double-valued. This implies that a shock must be formed at this point. The distance which the density wave travels before it shocks depends on the initial shape and the amplitude of the wake.

To study shock formation and propagation quantitatively we need to solve equation (30) with the initial condition given by the solution of the linear wake generation problem. As we have mentioned in §2.2, since all our variables reduce to the corresponding variables of GR01 in the limit $r \rightarrow r_p$, the whole linear generation problem reduces to the one solved before — wake excitation in the shearing sheet approximation. Thus, we might use the solution for the wake shape calculated in GR01 as the initial condition in our more general case:

$$\chi(M_p, t = t_0, \eta) = \frac{M_p}{M_1} f_0(\eta) \quad (38)$$

[M_1 is defined in equation (19)]. Here the initial profile $\chi(M_p, t = t_0, \eta)$ is taken not at $t = 0$ but at some $t_0 > 0$ because in the linear regime wake has to propagate some distance from the planet before it fully forms. Thus t_0 is a matching boundary where one switches from linear to weakly nonlinear regime, and following GR01 we take $t_0 \approx 1.89$ corresponding to the distance from the planet $|x_0| = 2l_p = (4/3)h_p$. One can usually neglect t_0 once the wave has travelled several h_p away from the planet.

The function $f_0(\eta)$ represents the shape of the initial profile at the moment $t = t_0$ for $M_p = M_1$ [see equation (19)]. It was calculated by GR01 in the shearing sheet approximation and is reproduced for convenience in Fig. 1a. The factor M_p/M_1 rescales the amplitude of the wake for an arbitrary mass of the planet.

In terms of the variables χ, η, t our nonlinear problem (30) is identical to the one studied in the shearing sheet approximation [including the initial condition (38)]. This means that the result

of GR01 for $\chi(M_1, t, \eta)$ in terms of variables χ, η, t is also a solution of our more general problem in terms of these variables. One needs only to express them in terms of r and ϕ using equations (31)-(34) and rescale to an arbitrary mass M_p in the following way: suppose that $\chi_1(t - t_0, \eta) \equiv \chi(M_1, t - t_0, \eta)$ is a solution of the equation (30) with the boundary condition (38) and $M_p = M_1$ (calculated in GR01). Then one can easily see that the solution for an arbitrary M_p can be written as

$$\chi(M_p, t - t_0, \eta) = \frac{M_p}{M_1} \chi_1 \left(\frac{M_p}{M_1} (t - t_0), \eta \right). \quad (39)$$

This reduction to the previously studied case is a very convenient feature of the analysis because it allows one to use all results previously obtained by GR01 in our more general setting. For instance, it was found before that the shock develops at

$$t_{sh} = t_0 + 0.79 \frac{M_1}{M_p} \quad (40)$$

for the initial profile given by the function $f_0(\eta)$ (see Fig. 1a). Based on what we have previously said, the shock has to form at the same value of t_{sh} in our global case, and the corresponding radial distance from the planet $r_{sh} - r_p$ at which this happens can be found using equations (32) & (34). For a fixed M_p this procedure leads to the condition (15) found before on the basis of qualitative considerations.

After the wave shocks, it starts transferring its angular momentum to the disk mean flow which leads to the damping of the wave amplitude. The initial profile shown in Fig. 1a has both positive and negative parts, thus it is destined to evolve asymptotically into an “N-wave” profile (Landau & Lifshitz 1959; Whitham 1974). In this regime the amplitude of χ decays as $t^{-1/2}$, whereas it was constant near the planet before forming a shock. The width of the spiral perturbation, which was $\sim h_p$ initially, grows as $t^{1/2}$ in the “N-wave” stage.

3.1. Angular momentum flux.

Summing up all the angular momentum flux contributions given by equation (10) and applying Parseval’s theorem one can show that the total angular momentum flux of the density wave f_J is given by:

$$f_J(r) = \frac{c_0^3(r)r}{[\Omega(r) - \Omega_p]\Sigma_0(r)} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\Sigma - \Sigma_0)^2 d\phi. \quad (41)$$

Using definitions (31) and (34) we obtain that in terms of variables t and η

$$f_J(t) = \frac{2^{3/2} c_p^3 r_p \Sigma_p}{(\gamma + 1)^2 |2A(r_p)|} \Phi(M_p, t), \quad \text{where} \quad (42)$$

$$\Phi(M_p, t) = \int \chi^2(M_p, t, \eta) d\eta = \left(\frac{M_p}{M_1} \right)^2 \Phi \left(M_1, \frac{M_p}{M_1} t \right),$$

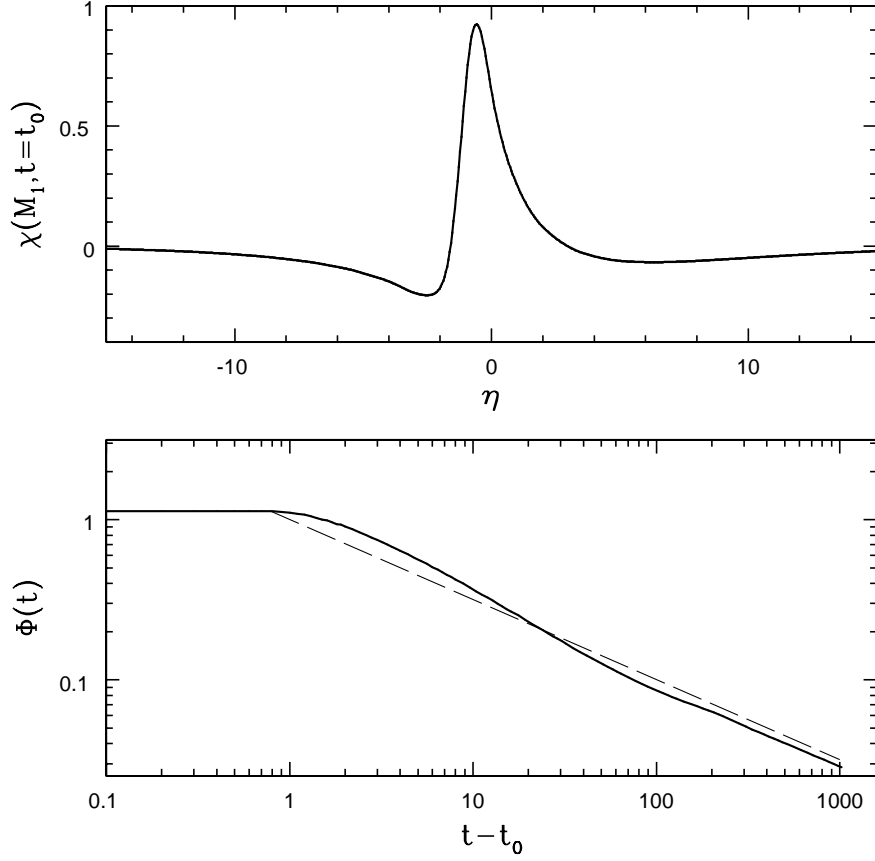


Fig. 1.— (*top*) Shape of the wake profile at the moment $t = t_0 \approx 1.89$ calculated in the linear theory. This profile is used as initial condition for the calculation of the nonlinear evolution of the wake. (*bottom*) Behavior of the dimensionless angular momentum flux $\Phi(t)$ carried by the waves in the presence of shock damping. The calculation is done for $M_p = M_1$. The dashed line has a slope of $t^{-1/2}$ and is drawn to illustrate the asymptotic behavior of $\Phi(t)$.

exactly like in GR01 (we neglected t_0 here). From equation (30) one can easily see that without shocks $\Phi(M_p, t) = \text{const}$ and angular momentum flux is conserved.

After the shock forms Φ starts to decrease. Asymptotically, in the “N-wave” regime it falls like $\Phi(M_p, t) \propto t^{-1/2}$. The behavior of Φ as a function of t for $M_p = M_1$ was calculated in GR01 and is shown in Fig. 1b. What happens with the angular momentum flux of the wave in the disk depends on how t is related to the distance travelled by the wave. If one assumes a uniform shear, then according to equation (35) $t \propto |r - r_p|^{5/2}$ and at infinity the wave damps completely. Real disks are different — they are always finite, dissipation can be not complete, and the damping pattern is asymmetric between the inner and outer disks. We will demonstrate later that for some background surface density and sound speed profiles $t(r = \infty)$ or $t(r = 0)$ are finite. This means that a density wave that has managed to propagate to the outermost parts of the disk, or to its center, still carries some undamped angular momentum flux. It could even happen that $t(r = \infty) < t_{sh}$ or $t(r = 0) < t_{sh}$, meaning that the wave does not shock before it reaches the outer or inner edge of the disk. The wave could then be reflected and part of its angular momentum could be carried back to the planet. This might have important consequences for planetary migration and we will dwell upon this more in §4.

3.2. Power-law disks

We now consider the case of power-law disks, i.e. Σ_0 and c_0 are assumed to be some powers (usually negative) of r , to illustrate the results obtained before and test some of our assumptions. We consider a Keplerian disk with $U_\star \propto r^{-1}$ and take $\Sigma_0 = \Sigma_p(r/r_p)^{-\delta}$ and $c_0 = c_p(r/r_p)^{-\nu}$, $\delta > 0, \nu > 0$.

Using definitions (31), (32), and (34) we find that

$$t = \frac{3}{2^{5/4}} \left(\frac{r_p}{h_p} \right)^{5/2} \left| \int_1^{r/r_p} |s^{3/2} - 1|^{3/2} s^{(5\nu+\delta)/2-11/4} ds \right|, \quad (43)$$

and the wake equation

$$\phi = \phi_0 - \text{sign}(r - r_p) \frac{r_p}{h_p} \left\{ \frac{(r/r_p)^{\nu-1/2}}{\nu - 1/2} - \frac{(r/r_p)^{\nu+1}}{\nu + 1} - \frac{3}{(2\nu - 1)(\nu + 1)} \right\}. \quad (44)$$

Using equation (43) let us consider first the inner ($r < r_p$) part of the disk. One can easily see that $t \rightarrow \infty$ as $r \rightarrow 0$ if $\rho = 5\nu + \delta < \rho_{cr} = 7/2$. This means that the density waves launched by the planet at r_p in the inner disk span the whole range of t and thus damp completely upon reaching the center. Of course, real disks always have an inner cavity, presumably formed by the protostellar magnetospheric activity, where the gas is absent, so we only have to consider wave propagation up to this inner edge. Depending on the location of the planet, this inner disk boundary may be very close to the center so that we will consider wave propagation down to $r = 0$.

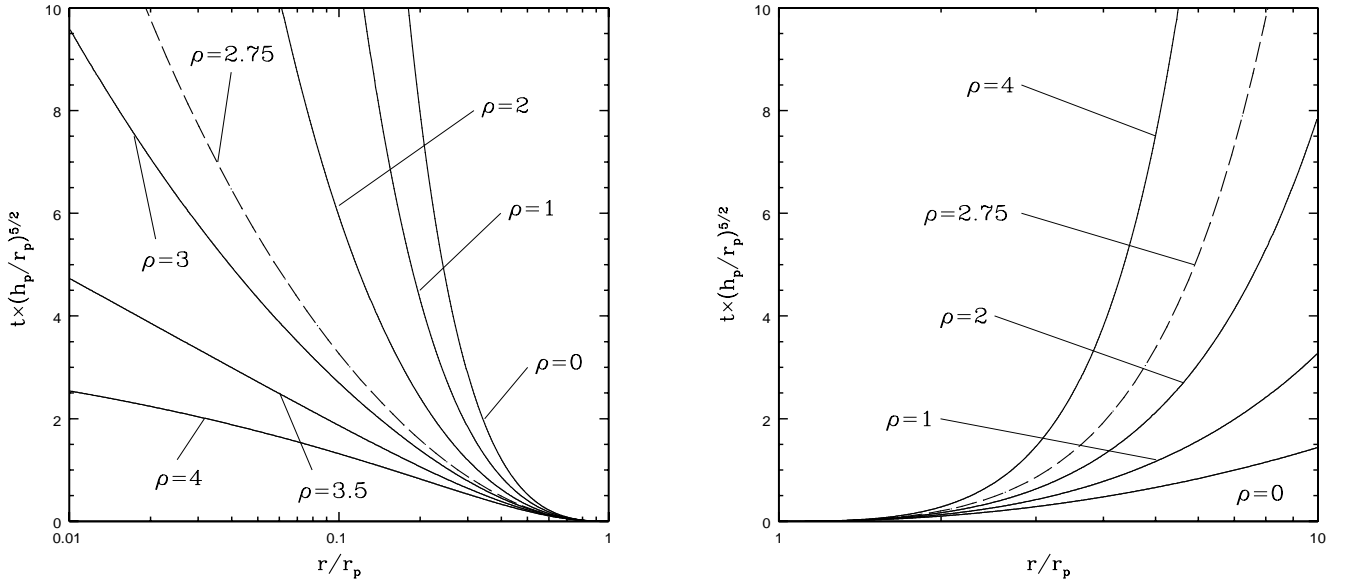


Fig. 2.— Dependence of the dimensionless variable t [multiplied by $(h_p/r_p)^{5/2}$] upon the distance from the central body r for several values of the power-law index $\rho = 5\nu + \delta$ (see the beginning of §3.2). Left panel is for $r < r_p$, right one is for $r > r_p$. Curves are labelled by the corresponding values of ρ . Notice a universal behavior of $t(r)$ near $r = r_p$, where the shearing sheet approximation is valid. In the inner part of the disk $t(r)$ is increasing to infinity as $r \rightarrow 0$ (which implies a complete dissipation of the shock) only for $\rho < \rho_{cr} = 7/2$. In the outer disk wave shocks and damps for all values of ρ as $r \rightarrow \infty$.

For $\rho > \rho_{cr}$ however, $r = 0$ corresponds to a finite t , and if $t(0) < t_{sh}$ the wave does not shock at all as r decreases to 0. Indeed, for $\rho = 5\nu + \delta > \rho_{cr} = 7/2$ one obtains that

$$t(0) = \frac{1}{2^{1/4}} \left(\frac{r_p}{h_p} \right)^{5/2} B \left(\frac{5\nu + \delta}{3} - \frac{7}{6}, \frac{5}{2} \right), \quad (45)$$

where $B(\alpha, \beta)$ is a beta-function. Using equation (40) and neglecting t_0 in it we get that if

$$M_p < M_x \equiv M_1 \times 0.94 \left(\frac{h_p}{r_p} \right)^{5/2} \left[B \left(\frac{5\nu + \delta}{3} - \frac{7}{6}, \frac{5}{2} \right) \right]^{-1}, \quad (46)$$

then the wave does not shock on the first passage to the disk center. For this to happen M_p should be sufficiently small: assuming that $B(\alpha, \beta) \sim 1$, $r_p/h_p \gg 1$ one needs $M_p \lesssim M_1 (h_p/r_p)^{5/2}$ for this to occur. If $\rho > \rho_{cr}$ but condition (46) is not fulfilled (if the planet is massive enough), the wave shocks as it travels towards the disk center, but it does not damp completely upon reaching it. Part of the angular momentum flux could be transferred back to the planet in this case.

One can easily see that in the outer disk this problem never arises: for $\delta > 0, \nu > 0$ the wave always shocks as it propagates outwards, if we forget about the outer boundary of the disk. In Table 1 we summarize final outcomes of wave propagation in the inner and outer parts of the disk for different values of ρ . In Fig. 2 we plot the behavior of $t(r)$ for different values of ρ in the inner and outer parts of the disk using equation (43). In the minimum mass Solar nebula (MMSN) $\delta = 3/2$ and $\nu = 1/4$ (Hayashi 1981) meaning that $\rho = 11/4 < \rho_{cr}$. Thus, in MMSN tidal waves always shock and are damped on both sides of the disk.

It is interesting to see how the shock damping is distributed in the disk. Using the asymptotic behavior of $\Phi(t)$ for large t we find that

$$f_J \propto \left(\frac{r}{r_p} \right)^{\frac{7-2\rho}{8}}, \quad (47)$$

as $t \rightarrow 0$. As ρ varies from 0 to ρ_{cr} the power law index here changes from $7/8$ to 0 (it is equal to $3/16$ for MMSN), which implies that for some Σ_0 and c_0 profiles quite a lot of the residual

Table 1. Wave behavior in the infinite disk for different values of $\rho > 0$.

Outcome of the wave propagation	Inner disk	Outer disk
Wave shocks, damps completely	$0 < \rho \leq \rho_{cr}$, any M_p	any $\rho > 0$, any M_p
Wave shocks, but damps not completely	$\rho > \rho_{cr}$, $M_p \geq M_x$	—
Wave does not shock and does not damp	$\rho > \rho_{cr}$, $M_p < M_x$	—

angular momentum is transferred to the disk close to its center. This might significantly enhance the accretion rate there. In the outer disk

$$f_J \propto \left(\frac{r}{r_p} \right)^{\frac{\rho+1}{2}}, \quad (48)$$

for $r \rightarrow \infty$. For shallow profiles of Σ_0 and c_0 the nonlocality of the damping could be important in the outer disk too. The behavior of the dimensionless angular momentum flux $\Phi(r)$ is shown in Fig. 3 for different values of ρ .

Let us now test the validity of some of our assumptions which were used in the analysis presented in §2.2. The tight-winding approximation is one of them. From the equation (36) we find that

$$\tan \theta = r \frac{\Omega(r) - \Omega_p}{c_0(r)} = \frac{r_p}{h_p} \left(\frac{r}{r_p} \right)^{\nu+1} \left[\left(\frac{r_p}{r} \right)^{3/2} - 1 \right], \quad (49)$$

where θ is an angle between the radial direction and the tangent of the spiral, and the last equality in (49) is for a Keplerian power-law disk. In the immediate vicinity of the planet, for $|r - r_p| \sim h_p$, this angle is small and spiral pattern is not tightly wound. But this is the region of the wake generation where the free nonlinear propagation approach is not applicable anyway. After travelling several h_p from the planet, the wake becomes tightly wrapped by the Keplerian shear if the disk thickness is small ($r_p/h_p \gg 1$). In the outer disk asymptotically $\theta \rightarrow \pi/2$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$ (spiral winds up). This happens because in the frame rotating with the planet outer parts of the disk move with the angular speed $-\Omega_p$ giving rise to a large linear velocity, while c_0 decreases with growing r . Inside the planet's location $\tan \theta \approx (r_p/h_p)(r/r_p)^{\nu-1/2}$ as $r \rightarrow 0$. Thus, for $\nu > 1/2$ the spiral pattern unwinds in the inner regions of the disk and tight-winding approximation might become inapplicable. However, if r_p/h_p is large enough, wave could still reach the inner disk edge before this effect becomes important (in fact, spiral pattern unwinds only if $h \sim r$ which is usually not the case in the inner part of the disk).

Geometrical effects may also be of some importance. As we mentioned before, in the asymptotic regime the wake width increases as $t^{1/2}$. At the same time, if the pattern of the wake winds up, the distance between the consecutive wavecrests (at a fixed polar angle ϕ) decreases. At some point the “rear” shock front of the “N-wave” profile comes so close to the “forward” shock front of the profile lagging by 2π in ϕ that our approximation of almost constant Riemann invariant R_+ becomes poor because the change of R_+ during the shock crossing gets comparable to the change of R_- following the shock (see the discussion in §2.2).

From Fig. 2 of GR01 one can find that the width of the shock in the η coordinate in the asymptotic region $t \rightarrow \infty$ is $\Delta\eta \approx 2.3t^{1/2}$. Obviously the “front touching” phenomenon occurs when $(l_p/r_p)\Delta\eta \gtrsim 2\pi$ [see equations (A10) and (A15)], that is when $t(h_p/r_p)^{5/2} \gtrsim 17(h_p/r_p)^{1/2}$. This particular form of the condition is used because it allows direct comparison with Fig. 2. One can see from this Figure that for $r_p/h_p = 20$ and any $\rho > 0$ one can propagate as far as $r/r_p \approx 0.3$ in the inner disk and $r/r_p \gtrsim 4$ in the outer, and still not encounter this “front touching”. In colder

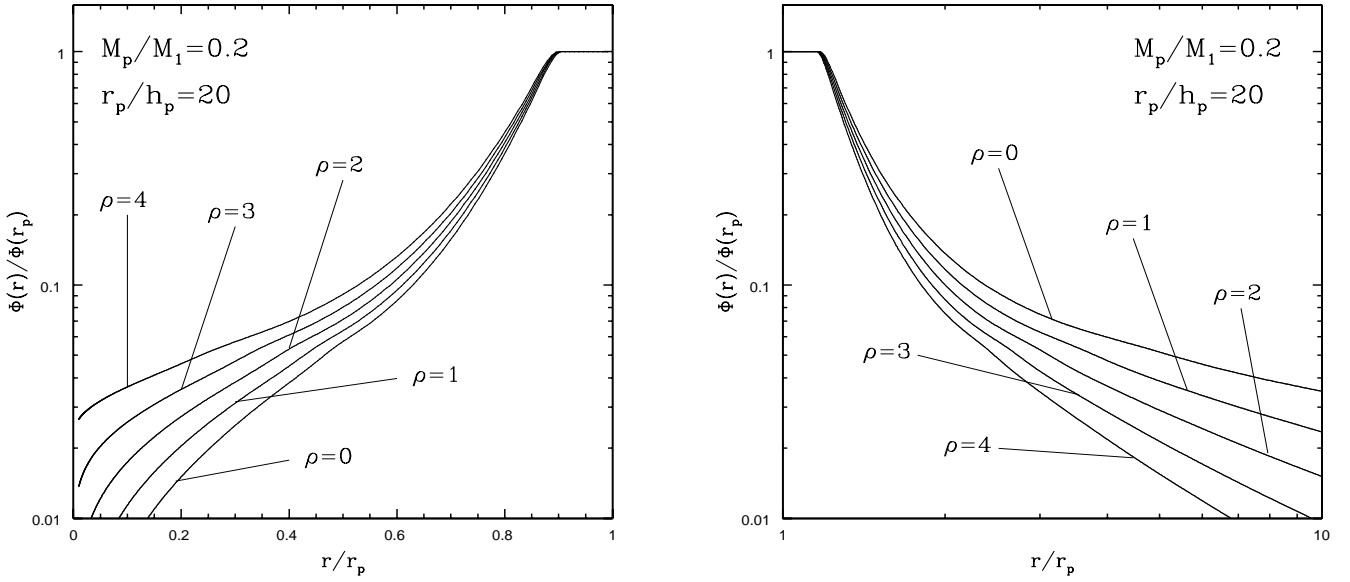


Fig. 3.— Dependence of the dimensionless angular momentum flux of the planet-generated density wave $\Phi(r)$ upon the distance from the central body r for several values of the power-law index $\rho = 5\nu + \delta$. Left panel is for the inner part of the disk, right is for the outer one (notice that on the left panel horizontal scale is linear). Calculation assumes that $M_p = 0.2 M_1$ [see equation (19)] and ratio $r_p/h_p = 20$. Different curves are labelled by the corresponding values of ρ . Notice that in the case $\rho = 4 > \rho_{cr}$ angular momentum flux is nonzero at the disk center.

disks with higher r_p/h_p this limitation becomes more stringent but even in this case there is a significant region of applicability of our analysis not too far from the planet where R_+ could be assumed approximately constant.

We also need to mention that our treatment of the nonlinear evolution essentially neglected linear dispersion of the wave profile. Near the planet wave dispersion is strongest but it is properly taken there into account in the linear calculations of GR01. Further away from the planet, according to equation (6), dispersion rapidly becomes less important in comparison with nonlinear steepening (if M_p is not very small) and can be ignored.

4. Discussion and applications.

It is quite possible that in the presence of vertical temperature gradients the channeling of the wave action into the vertical direction can damp density waves in the disk atmosphere more efficiently than we have found here (Lin et al. 1990; Lubow & Ogilvie 1998). It seems reasonable however that in passive disks heated by their central stars thermal stratification in the z -direction must be small because of their high optical depth. This strongly diminishes the wave action channeling into the disk atmosphere (Ogilvie & Lubow 1999) and leads to almost two-dimensional picture of the wave propagation in the disk supporting the validity of our consideration.

Throughout our analysis we assumed the wave nonlinearity to be weak, meaning that $(\Sigma - \Sigma_0)/\Sigma_0$ is small. From equation (38) we see that if $M_p \gtrsim M_1$ the wake is nonlinear from the very beginning and it shocks immediately [see equation (40)]. This means that the separation of the disk into two distinct regions where one can neglect either planetary torques or nonlinearity of the wave does not exist. Also for $M_p \gtrsim M_1$ a gap in the disk can form around the planet (Lin & Papaloizou 1993). Thus, as we have mentioned before in §2.2, our analysis is applicable only for small-mass planets: $M_p \lesssim M_1$.

We have seen in §3.2 that wave damping can be a nonlocal process and that part of the wave action could reach the disk edge undamped. This incomplete damping is important for the question of the planetary migration. The migration speed and direction depend sensitively on a delicate balance between the amounts of the angular momentum which the planet deposits into the inner and outer parts of the disk. If the density waves dissipate completely and transfer all their angular momentum to the disk fluid then the only difference in torques acting on both sides of the disk is due to the surface density and temperature gradients in the disk, and to asymmetries in the locations of the inner and outer Lindblad resonances (Ward 1986). The amount of the resultant torque which leads to the orbital evolution of the planet is only $\sim h_p/r_p$ compared to the magnitude of one-sided torque (GT80). Interaction with the outer part of the disk is usually *stronger* than with the inner one, leading to an *inward* migration (Ward 1986).

Let us now assume that tidal perturbations are not damped completely upon reaching the disk edge and are reflected from it. The remaining waves will be dissipated on the way back to the

planet but some of them might survive and interact gravitationally with the planet, returning to it some of the initially launched angular momentum. If this effect is able to return to the planet about h_p/r_p of the one-sided angular momentum then the migration could be strongly modified [Tanaka & Ward (2000) studied a similar effect caused by asymmetries in wave damping]. Consider, for instance, a planet sitting close to the outer edge of the disk, but still several h_p from it (otherwise strong asymmetries in the torque will be produced when the wake is still forming). A tidal wave launched in the inner disk might be completely dissipated because of the large distance it has to travel in the disk. At the same time the wave in the outer disk might not shock at all before being reflected from the disk edge and can bring a significant amount of the angular momentum back to the planet. Thus, interaction with the outer part of the disk is now *weaker* than with the inner one and migration will change its direction – the planet will move outwards. In the same way one could show that planets near the inner edge of the disk tend to move inwards faster if the waves are incompletely damped in the inner part of the disk. One can roughly describe this process by saying that the planet tends to be pushed out from the disk towards its closest boundary. The same picture will hold for wave reflection off the edges of gaps formed by giant planets. These conclusions depend on a lot of assumptions, such as the details of the reflection process and gravitational interaction of the reflected wave with the planet, which certainly deserve further study. Whether this process is an interesting issue for the question of planet formation and survival in the course of migration depends on the relevant timescales. Nevertheless, incomplete damping of the density waves introduces additional degree of freedom on which the migration process depends and which could be important in some systems.

Deposition of the wave angular momentum into the disk fluid leads to the evolution of the disk itself (Larson 1989). Spruit (1987) and Larson (1990) found that the action of shocked density waves is equivalent to an appreciable viscosity with corresponding dimensionless α -parameter (Shakura & Sunyaev 1973) reaching $\sim 10^{-4} - 10^{-3}$. However they did not specify the source of the tidal perturbation, a deficiency remedied in GR01. There it was demonstrated that if all the solids in the disk were deposited into a population of Earth-sized objects then, again, an effective viscosity $\alpha \sim 10^{-4} - 10^{-3}$ is produced.

Our results allow one to study the global evolution of the disk affected by all the planets present in it. The theory of the time-dependent accretion disks (Pringle 1981) states that the mass accretion rate at each point in the disk is uniquely determined by the divergence of the angular momentum flux carried by the waves:

$$\dot{M} = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial r}(r^2\Omega) \right]^{-1} \frac{\partial f_J}{\partial r}. \quad (50)$$

Since f_J depends on the distance travelled by the wave in a complex way [see equation (42)], one should expect \dot{M} produced by a single planet to be a function of r . Using (42), (43), & (50) we can calculate the accretion rate in the disk at a distance r from the center produced by a single planet

located at $r = r_p$:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{M}(r) = \text{sign}(r - r_p) \frac{2^{9/4}}{(\gamma + 1)^2} \left(\frac{h_p}{r_p} \right)^{1/2} \Omega(r_p) \Sigma_0(r_p) r_p^2 \left(\frac{M_p}{M_1} \right)^3 \\ \times \left| \left(\frac{r}{r_p} \right)^{3/2} - 1 \right|^{3/2} \left(\frac{r}{r_p} \right)^{\rho/2 - 9/4} \Phi' \left(M_1, \frac{M_p}{M_1} t(r/r_p) \right). \end{aligned} \quad (51)$$

Here $\Phi'(x) \equiv d\Phi(x)/dx$. Note that because $\Phi' < 0$, the accretion rate is positive inside of the planet (inflow) and negative outside of it (outflow) – the perturber tries to repel the surrounding gas.

In Fig. 4 we plot the accretion rate in the disk due to the planetary torques from 8 planets of the Solar System (excluding Pluto) using equation (51). It is assumed that (Hayashi 1981)

$$\Sigma_0(r) = 1700 \text{ g cm}^{-3} r_{AU}^{-3/2}, \quad c_0(r) = 1.2 \text{ km s}^{-1} r_{AU}^{-1/4} \quad (52)$$

(r_{AU} is the distance from the center measured in AU), and for the masses of the giant planets we take only the masses of their rocky cores: $15 M_\oplus$ for Jupiter and Saturn and $10 M_\oplus$ for Uranus and Neptune (otherwise they are likely to open gaps).

One can see that in some locations in the nebula $\dot{M} \sim (1 - 5) \times 10^{-8} M_\odot/\text{yr}$ suggesting a significant surface density evolution there. Indeed, the total disk mass inside Neptune’s orbit calculated using equation (52) is only $\approx 0.007 M_\odot$. Averaging \dot{M} over the bulk of the disk one obtains $\langle \dot{M} \rangle \approx (2 - 4) \times 10^{-9} M_\odot$ (depending on whether one averages \dot{M} or $|\dot{M}|$) which implies the typical dispersal time of the MMSN by planetary torques $\approx (2 - 3) \times 10^6$ yr, in rough agreement with observations (Hartmann et al. 1998). For more massive disks evolution could be more rapid, because the mass contained in the planets is increased (for a fixed disk metallicity): planets could be more massive, meaning higher ratio M_p/M_1 [see equation (51)], or simply be more numerous. This leads to stronger accretion so that the timescales $\lesssim 10^6$ yr could be typical. Note however that at some point this increase in accretion rate is stopped by the tendency of massive planets to open gaps in the disk. This could drastically reduce their influence on the nebular evolution. Notice also that since \dot{M} is very inhomogeneous radially, planetary-driven disk evolution must be highly time-dependent.

A very useful feature of our analysis presented in §2.2 is that it can be applied to disks in which the surface density and sound speed have arbitrary radial distributions. They should only vary on scales larger than the perturbation wavelength for our tight-winding approximation to be valid (since in differentially rotating disks radial wavenumber rapidly grows with distance from the planet this condition does not pose serious restrictions). Thus one can not only calculate the instantaneous accretion rate at each point in the disk but also study the self-consistent temporal evolution of the disk driven by the planetary torques. This is very important, for example, for studying the gap formation around the planet in gaseous disks and we are going to investigate this process in a future study (Rafikov 2001).

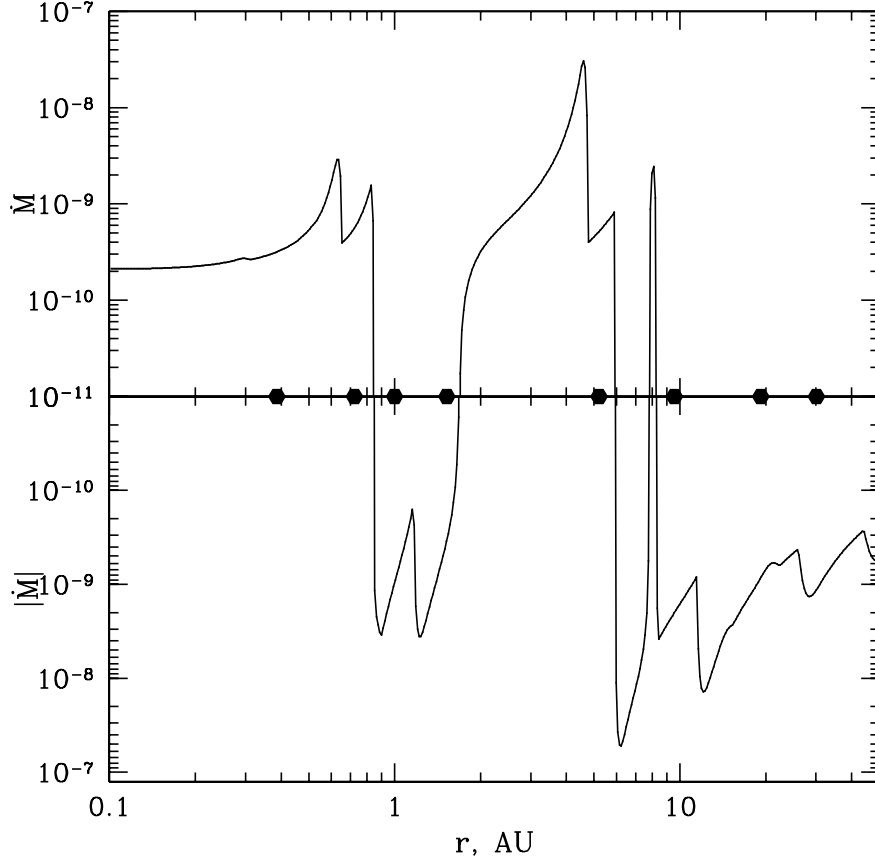


Fig. 4.— Dependence of the planet-induced accretion rate \dot{M} (in M_\odot/yr) upon the distance r (in AU) in the minimum mass Solar Nebula (MMSN). Torques produced by 8 major planets (only masses of the rocky cores are taken for giants) are included here, and calculation is done using usual MMSN parameters [see equation (52)]. Positive values of \dot{M} (inflow towards the center) are displayed in the upper panel, while negative ones (meaning the outflow) are in the lower panel. Dots denote the locations of the planets. One can see that in some positions in the nebula \dot{M} could reach $> 10^{-8} M_\odot/\text{yr}$ leading there to a significant surface density evolution on timescales $\sim 10^6$ yr.

5. Conclusions.

Tidal interaction of the gas disk with a planet embedded in it is important for the question of the orbital evolution of the planet as well as for the fate of the disk itself. In this paper we presented a global description of the evolution of density waves in vertically isothermal disks where two-dimensional fluid equations provide proper approximation. The disk surface density and sound speed are allowed to vary independently with radius.

Our quantitative results are not very different from those obtained by Goodman & Rafikov (GR01): for low-mass planets surface density perturbations are weakly nonlinear and they shock after propagating several local disk scale lengths h_p from the planet. Subsequent damping of the wave transfers its angular momentum to the disk and is intrinsically asymmetric, which could be important for planet migration. Disks evolve due to this angular momentum flux deposition and in the absence of other viscous mechanisms this could be the only driver of their evolution. We have demonstrated that for the parameters similar to those of the Solar System the tidal perturbations alone could produce spatially nonuniform and time dependent evolution with average accretion rates $\dot{M} \sim 10^{-9} - 10^{-8} M_\odot/\text{yr}$ (yielding typical timescale $\sim 10^6 - 10^7$ yr). In protoplanetary systems with more favorable conditions disk evolution may be even stronger.

The prescription for the angular momentum deposition by planets in disks with arbitrary surface density and temperature profiles described here could easily be incorporated into other problems such as the gap formation around massive planet or planet-driven global evolution of the surface density in the disk.

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A. Reduction of the equation for R_- to Burgers equation.

The equation for $R_- = u - 2c/(\gamma - 1) = 2(c_0 - 2c)/(\gamma - 1)$ reads

$$\begin{aligned} [\partial_\phi + (u - c)\partial_\xi] R_- = & - \left[\frac{1}{\Sigma} \partial_\xi P - \frac{1}{\Sigma_0} \partial_\xi P_0 - c \partial_\xi \frac{2c}{\gamma - 1} - cu \frac{\partial_\xi \Sigma}{\Sigma} - u \partial_\xi \frac{2c}{\gamma - 1} \right] \\ & + \frac{2\Omega}{\Delta\Omega} v + \frac{v^2}{\Delta\Omega r} + \frac{cu}{\Delta\Omega r} + \frac{cv}{\Delta\Omega r} \partial_\phi \ln \Sigma + \frac{c}{\Delta\Omega r} \partial_\phi v. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A1})$$

We find it useful to introduce a new function

$$\psi \equiv \frac{\gamma + 1}{\gamma - 1} \frac{c - c_0}{c_0} \ll 1. \quad (\text{A2})$$

Using this definition and equation (5) one can find that up to the second order in ψ

$$\frac{\Sigma - \Sigma_0}{\Sigma_0} = \frac{2}{\gamma + 1} \psi + \frac{3 - \gamma}{(\gamma + 1)^2} \psi^2. \quad (\text{A3})$$

Also from the conservation of the Riemann invariant R_+ we have that

$$u = 2 \frac{c_0 - c}{\gamma - 1} = -2 \frac{c_0}{\gamma + 1} \psi. \quad (\text{A4})$$

Now, we want to relate $\partial_\xi P$ to the derivatives of $\Sigma - \Sigma_0$. When doing this we have to remember that relation (4) holds true only in the reference frame *comoving* with the fluid. Thus, Eulerian increment of any quantity Δ_E has to be related to its Lagrangian counterpart Δ_L by $\Delta_E = \Delta_L - \mathbf{d} \nabla$, where \mathbf{d} is a Lagrangian displacement. Obviously, $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{d} = -(\Sigma - \Sigma_0)/\Sigma_0$, and since the disk is assumed to be thin and the spiral pattern is tightly wound, $\partial_\xi \mathbf{d} \approx \nabla \cdot \mathbf{d} = -(\Sigma - \Sigma_0)/\Sigma_0$. Expanding Lagrangian increment of P up to the second order in $\Sigma - \Sigma_0$ we obtain that

$$\partial_\xi P = \partial_\xi P_0 + \partial_\xi [c^2(\Sigma - \Sigma_0)] + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \frac{c_0^2}{\Sigma_0} \partial_\xi (\Sigma - \Sigma_0)^2 + P \frac{\Sigma - \Sigma_0}{\Sigma_0} \partial_\xi \ln \frac{P_0}{\Sigma_0^\gamma}. \quad (\text{A5})$$

For a polytropic equation of state with a fixed polytropic constant (entropy in the disk is independent of r) the last term in (A5) is absent and the derivative of the pressure could be taken without worrying about the Lagrangian displacement.

Since the tidal perturbation is assumed to be weak and tightly wrapped, the most important nonlinear terms responsible for the wake evolution are proportional to $\psi \partial_\xi \psi$ while terms like

ψ^2 can be disregarded. Substituting (A3), (A4), and (A5) into (A1) we get after lengthy but straightforward calculation that

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_\phi \psi - c_0(1 + \psi)\partial_\xi \psi = & -\frac{\gamma + 1}{4c_0} \left[2\frac{\Omega}{\Delta\Omega}v + \frac{v^2}{\Delta\Omega r} + \frac{cu}{\Delta\Omega r} + \frac{cv}{\Delta\Omega r}\partial_\phi \ln \Sigma \right. \\ & \left. + \frac{c}{\Delta\Omega r}\partial_\phi v - \frac{6c_0^2}{\gamma + 1}\psi\partial_\xi \ln c_0 - \frac{2c_0^2}{\gamma + 1}\psi\partial_\xi \ln \Sigma_0 \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A6})$$

We needed to expand $\Sigma - \Sigma_0$ and $\partial_\xi P$ up to the second order in perturbation to make sure that all the terms proportional to $\partial_\xi \psi$ and $\psi\partial_\xi \psi$ cancel out in the r.h.s of (A1).

To an adequate approximation we can express from (26) $\partial_\phi v$ as

$$\partial_\phi v \approx -\frac{2B}{\Delta\Omega(r)}u. \quad (\text{A7})$$

Here we neglected the nonlinear terms $u\partial_\phi v$ and $uv/(\Delta\Omega r)$; the term with $\partial_\phi \Sigma$ only slightly changes the propagation velocity of the wake and thus is disregarded too.

In equation (26) the terms which are in phase with u or ψ are important for the amplitude of the perturbation evolution while those out-of-phase only slightly affect the characteristic velocity but not the wave amplitude (as we noticed before). Derivative with respect to ϕ changes phase by $\pi/2$; thus, terms with ∂_ϕ in equation (26) can be considered separately from others. We can integrate them over ϕ to obtain

$$v \approx -2\frac{c_0^2}{\Delta\Omega r}\frac{1}{\gamma + 1}\psi. \quad (\text{A8})$$

This result, combined with equation (A4), confirms that $v \ll u$ (see §2.2).

Using relations (A4), (A7), and (A8) we finally get that

$$\partial_\phi \psi - c_0(1 + \psi)\partial_\xi \psi = \psi\frac{c_0}{\Delta\Omega r} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial \ln \Sigma_0}{\partial \ln r} + \frac{3}{2}\frac{\partial \ln c_0}{\partial \ln r} - \frac{A(r)}{\Delta\Omega} \right] + O(\psi^2). \quad (\text{A9})$$

The local approximation of GR01 could be retrieved now by assuming $\Sigma_0 = \text{const}$ and $c_0 = \text{const}$ and expanding $\Delta\Omega$ to first order in terms of $r - r_p$.

All effects of the nonlinear wake evolution are embodied in the term $\psi\partial_\xi \psi$ in the l.h.s. of equation (A9). We now reduce this equation to the conventional Burger's equation following the approach outlined in GR01. First, we make a change of independent variables from ϕ, ξ to ϕ', η_1 given by the relations

$$\int \frac{d\xi}{c(\xi)} \rightarrow \eta_1 - \phi', \quad \phi \rightarrow \phi' \quad (\text{A10})$$

Here ϕ' has the meaning of the azimuthal distance along the wake while η_1 represents the displacement from the wake center in the ϕ -direction. Since the wake is narrow, $\eta \ll \phi$ and we can consider

c_0 to be a function of ϕ' only: $c_0(\xi) = c_0(\phi)$. This transforms equation (A9) into (we drop the $'$ from ϕ')

$$\partial_\phi \psi - \psi \partial_{\eta_1} \psi = -\psi \frac{1}{g(\phi)} \partial_\phi g(\phi), \quad (\text{A11})$$

where function $g(\phi)$ is defined by

$$\frac{1}{g(\phi)} \partial_\phi g(\phi) = -\frac{c_0(\phi)}{\Delta\Omega(\phi)r(\phi)} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \ln \Sigma_0}{\partial \ln r} + \frac{3}{2} \frac{\partial \ln c_0}{\partial \ln r} - \frac{A(\phi)}{\Delta\Omega(\phi)} \right]. \quad (\text{A12})$$

Introducing new function $\chi(\phi) = g(\phi)\psi$ we rewrite the equation (A11) as

$$\partial_\phi \chi = \chi \frac{1}{g(\phi)} \partial_{\eta_1} \chi. \quad (\text{A13})$$

Changing from ϕ to a new variable t_1 given by

$$t_1 = \int_0^\phi \frac{d\phi'}{g(\phi')} \quad (\text{A14})$$

we arrive at the Burger's equation

$$\partial_{t_1} \chi - \chi \partial_{\eta_1} \chi = 0.$$

Both t_1 and η_1 are dimensionless and we find it useful to rescale them to t, η in the following way:

$$\eta = \frac{r_p}{l_p} \eta_1, \quad t = \frac{r_p}{l_p} t_1, \quad (\text{A15})$$

where $l_p = c_p/|2A(r_p)|$ is a Mach-1 length at the position of the planet (in the limit $r \rightarrow r_p$ this rescaling makes our η identical with η used in GR01). Thus, we obtain equation (30).

Finally, we calculate the behavior of function g . From definitions (24) and (A10) one finds that $d\phi = -(\Delta\Omega/c_0)dr$. Using this and the definition of Oort's parameter A one can easily integrate equation (A12) to find

$$g = C_1 \left(\frac{r \Sigma_0 c_0^3}{|\Delta\Omega|} \right)^{1/2}, \quad C_1 = \text{const}. \quad (\text{A16})$$

The arbitrary constant C_1 should be chosen in such a way that in the limit $r \rightarrow r_p$ our definitions of χ and t reduce to the analogous expressions of GR01 [given by equation (35)]. One achieves this by taking

$$C_1 = \frac{2^{1/4}}{r_p c_p \Sigma_p^{1/2}} \quad (\text{A17})$$

[see equations (34)-(35)].